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THE SEPTEMBER COVER

According to custom, this September issue of The Journal features the leading contribution of the Division of Research of Indiana State Teachers College produced during the past year. The feature article is a study of teacher turnover. The cover picture, showing a teacher arriving at a new destination to assume the duties of a new position, is emblematic of the roving nature of the school teacher's calling.

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Teacher Turnover in Indiana During the Ten Years of The Depression

J. R. Shannon and Marian A. Kittle

This investigation, made by the Director and Assistant Director of Research at Indiana State Teachers College, was begun in the autumn of 1939 and not completed until December, 1942. It was started as a part of the contribution of Indiana State Teachers College to the research program sponsored by the Indiana Council on Education, but it was not completed until after the Council had ceased to function. A companion study made by the College for the Council was published in the JOURNAL in September, 1940. Although approximately twenty N.Y.A. helpers assisted in the investigation on a part-time basis, the vast amount of tedious detail made progress slow. The writers, of course, worked other projects in the meantime.

Sometimes a problem which originated as one of pure science becomes one of applied science, and sometimes a problem which originated as one of applied science becomes one of pure science. The investigation in this article is an illustration of problems of the latter category.

During the school year of 1939-1940, when teacher turnover in Indiana was obviously less—and the demand for new teachers seemed less—than it had been for many years, the very practical and immediate problem was presented to teachers colleges of learning more exactly what demand there was for their services. Earlier surveys of the average length of the professional lifetime of teachers had shown a tendency toward a lengthening of teaching careers.¹

¹A convenient summary of these

What was the actual situation in the late depression year of 1940? Had economic and other conditions remained relatively constant until a survey of the situation begun at that time could be completed, the practical value of the survey to a forward-looking teachers college would have been exceedingly great. The enormousness and tediousness of the undertaking were so extraordinary, however, that by the time the survey was completed (1942) the situation was radically changed. Prospects of war—then war—enlistments, conscription, and war industries, created a situation by the summer of 1942 in which the shortage of teachers in some fields was perhaps greater than ever before. The survey, begun in 1939, lost most of its immediate practical value by the time it was finished, and the data it yielded became valuable chiefly for cold-storage purposes—that they might be stored away for future reference when other phases of the problem of teacher supply and demand become pressing, or when further economic and other changes return us to the doldrums.

PROCEDURE

The basic mode of procedure in obtaining the data for the survey was simple. It consisted merely of analyzing the annual editions of the Indiana

surveys is given by Nola A. Smith, *A Study of the Length of Service of Teachers in the Public Schools of Indiana*. (Unpublished Master's thesis at Indiana State Teachers College, 1956.)

School Directory for the ten-year period beginning with the school year of 1930-1931 and running through 1939-1940. A card was made for each new name of a teacher or school administrator met, and data were recorded on the card for each year the name appeared in a directory, showing the sex of the individual, the school corporation in which employed, and whether the individual was an elementary teacher, a high-school teacher, or an administrator. Thus, 45,840 cards were prepared, and from them the compilations of the report were made. There are a few details of interpretation which need to be presented, however, before going to the results.

1. Only regular teachers and administrators in local public-school corporations and county superintendents or supervisors were counted. People or positions not counted, therefore, were: state-department-of-public-instruction officials, personnel of state schools or private schools, nuns teaching in public schools, nurses, clerks, social workers, attendance officers, army officers teaching military science, and substitute teachers.

2. City, town, and county superintendents, assistant superintendents, high-school principals, elementary principals in buildings with eight or more teachers, and assistant principals in large high schools were classified as administrators when it was clear that they really were supervisors and not special teachers (as a "supervisor of music" in a township school).

3. A teacher serving in both the elementary school and high school at the same time was classified as a high-school teacher. So also were teachers in junior high schools and in departmentalized seventh and eighth grades. However, in the instance of a combined elementary and junior high school, when the elementary grades also were departmentalized, there was no way to differentiate between elementary and secondary, so all were called elementary.

4. Township teachers and principals and county superintendents were regarded as rural. City, town, and

joint city (or town) and township teachers and administrators were regarded as urban. In case a corporation changed from rural to urban during the years of the survey, its personnel were regarded as urban or rural depending on the status of the corporation during the major portion of the ten years.

5. Perhaps the greatest possibility for error in the analysis of the directories lay in identifying names. Sometimes the sex of a person could not be determined from the name. Two persons might have the same name, but whenever the same name appeared different years in different corporations, it was assumed to be the same person. Most perplexing was the problem of change of name by married women. A woman in the same position and with the same first name as

a woman with a different last name the year before was assumed to be the same person.

NEW RECRUITS

The first, and among the most significant, data of the report are those shown in Table I. The school year of 1950-1951 found 25,468 teachers and administrators in the local public schools of Indiana, with slightly over half of the total (54.82 per cent) in urban schools. This total is broken down into subdivisions on the basis of urban or rural, type of position, and sex, in the top horizontal column of figures in the table. Similar horizontal columns in the table show the number of new names for each succeeding nine years. Beneath each figure showing the number of new names for any group of personnel any year is a figure showing the per cent which such num-

ber is of the number for the same group in 1950-1951.

Perhaps first among the significant observations to be made from the data of the table is that the total number of new names appearing in the directory each of the nine years following 1950-1951 was approximately ten per cent of the total personnel for 1950-1951. The average per cent, to be exact, was 9.65. If the directory for 1940-1941 had been analyzed, and it revealed as many new names as the average for the nine years preceding, the total number of new names for the ten-year period following 1950-1951 would have approximately equaled the total number of teachers and administrators in the public schools of Indiana. In other words, assuming that new names represented new teachers, there was the equivalent of

TABLE I
NUMBER OF NEW NAMES APPEARING EACH YEAR, BY URBAN AND RURAL, TYPE OF POSITION, AND SEX

School Year	Urban												Rural												Total	
	Elementary				High School				Administrat'n				Elementary				High School				Administrat'n					
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female		
1950-1951	495	7012	1774	2711	655	241	1958	4590	1482	2055	674	45	25468													
Number	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00		
Per cent																										
1951-1952	25	451	169	255	16	2	556	1158	554	552	77	2	5595													
Number	4.67	6.15	0.55	9.41	2.55	0.85	18.18	26.58	25.89	26.86	11.42	4.44	14.47													
Per cent																										
1952-1953	47	255	96	155	14	1	200	650	252	292	18	1	1919													
Number	9.55	5.55	5.41	4.91	2.21	0.41	10.21	14.81	15.65	14.21	2.67	2.22	8.18													
Per cent																										
1953-1954	25	242	95	145	21	1	197	600	212	249	28	0	1811													
Number	5.07	5.45	5.24	5.27	5.32	0.41	10.06	15.67	14.50	12.12	4.15	0.00	7.72													
Per cent																										
1954-1955	52	522	124	201	12	5	175	561	217	290	15	0	1972													
Number	10.55	4.59	6.99	7.41	1.90	1.24	8.94	12.78	14.64	14.11	2.25	0.00	8.40													
Per cent																										
1955-1956	61	575	149	218	10	4	205	669	511	551	24	0	2577													
Number	12.57	5.55	8.40	8.04	1.58	1.66	10.47	15.24	20.99	17.08	5.56	0.00	10.15													
Per cent																										
1956-1957	58	565	147	216	9	6	215	568	254	555	19	5	2215													
Number	11.76	5.21	8.29	7.97	1.42	2.49	10.88	12.94	17.14	17.27	2.82	11.11	9.44													
Per cent																										
1957-1958	60	586	167	246	15	4	209	672	504	405	19	1	2488													
Number	12.17	5.50	9.41	9.07	2.57	1.66	10.67	15.51	20.51	19.71	2.82	2.22	10.60													
Per cent																										
1958-1959	50	268	148	205	10	4	114	514	286	375	19	1	1990													
Number	10.14	5.82	8.54	7.49	1.58	1.66	5.82	11.71	19.50	18.15	2.82	2.22	8.48													
Per cent																										
1959-1940	45	504	140	191	9	6	145	582	541	412	29	5	2205													
Number	8.72	4.54	7.89	7.05	1.42	2.49	7.50	15.26	23.01	20.05	4.50	11.11	9.40													
Per cent																										
Total	912	9940	5007	4517	749	272	5770	10564	5995	5554	922	60	45840													
Number	184.99	141.76	169.50	166.62	118.55	112.86	192.54	256.08	269.45	259.56	156.80	155.55	186.81													
Per cent																										

TABLE II
NUMBER OF OLD NAMES DISAPPEARING PERMANENTLY EACH YEAR, BY URBAN AND RURAL, TYPE OF POSITION, AND SEX

School Year	Urban						Rural						Total
	Elementary		High School		Administrat'n		Elementary		High School		Administrat'n		
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	
1951-1952	29	851	129	269	27	6	252	481	194	416	67	1	2702
Number	5.88	12.14	7.27	9.92	4.27	2.49	11.85	10.96	15.09	20.24	9.94	2.22	11.51
1952-1953	16	492	69	214	20	11	180	556	152	289	40	1	2020
Number	5.25	7.02	2.89	7.80	5.16	4.56	9.19	12.21	10.26	14.06	5.95	2.22	8.61
1953-1954	50	490	89	205	56	6	176	611	147	325	57	2	2152
Number	6.00	6.99	5.02	7.49	5.69	2.49	8.90	15.92	9.92	15.82	5.49	4.44	9.17
1954-1955	21	595	86	207	21	4	114	526	150	216	25	2	1745
Number	4.26	5.63	4.85	7.64	5.52	1.66	5.82	11.98	8.77	10.51	5.41	4.44	7.44
1955-1956	52	473	85	202	19	16	212	668	192	321	47	1	2268
Number	6.49	6.75	4.79	7.45	5.00	6.64	10.85	15.22	12.96	15.62	6.97	2.22	9.66
1956-1957	24	451	105	218	26	9	185	622	185	299	26	1	2149
Number	4.87	6.45	5.92	8.04	4.11	5.75	9.45	14.17	12.55	14.55	5.86	2.22	9.16
1957-1958	55	485	112	256	54	14	212	679	215	556	47	5	2426
Number	7.10	6.92	6.51	8.71	5.57	5.81	10.85	15.47	14.57	17.52	6.97	6.67	10.54
1958-1959	55	547	108	226	23	5	174	644	221	504	45	4	2154
Number	7.10	4.95	6.09	8.54	5.65	2.07	8.89	14.67	14.91	14.79	6.58	8.89	9.09
1959-1960	40	458	125	220	50	7	551	856	511	424	55	1	2856
Number	8.11	6.55	7.05	8.12	4.74	2.90	16.91	19.50	20.99	20.65	7.86	2.22	12.17
Total	262	4442	908	1995	256	78	1816	5625	1745	2950	585	16	20452
25468	55.14	65.55	51.18	75.59	57.28	52.57	92.75	128.07	117.61	145.55	56.82	35.56	87.15
00.00													

approximately a one-hundred-per-cent turnover in the ten years; the average professional lifetime of a teacher in Indiana during the depression was approximately ten years, which is considerably longer than earlier studies had shown.

Although the number of new names in the total educational personnel each of the nine years following 1950-1951 averaged nearly ten per cent, wide variation occurred among the different types in the personnel, as Table I shows. The most conspicuous variation lay between urban and rural groups, the rural turnover being much greater.

WITHDRAWALS FROM THE PROFESSION

The data considered thus far concern only the teachers in service during the first year of the period studied and the new ones who entered the profession each of the remaining nine

years of the period. Just as thousands of new names appeared in the directories during the ten-year period, so did thousands of old ones disappear. A small percentage of names for any year did not appear the following year but reappeared at some later time during the ten depression years studied. Such cases are classified as "temporary withdrawals." The great majority of names which disappeared, however, never reappeared during the period of years analyzed, and they are regarded as "permanent withdrawals."² Details of the distribution of these permanent withdrawals are shown in Table II.

Table II follows the same form as Table I. The number of names shown for 1951-1952 are ones found in the

²It is conceded that a person classified as a "permanent withdrawal" might turn up again in a later directory.

directory for 1950-1951 and no later year. The number of names shown for 1952-1953 are ones found in the directory for 1951-1952, and maybe also for 1950-1951, and no later years. The number of names shown for any later year in the table are ones found in the directory for the preceding year, and maybe also in directories of successive preceding years of the period studied, but not in the directory for that year or any later one during the ten-year period. All percentages in Table II are based on the figures for personnel of 1950-1951, or the same bases as the percentages in Table I.

Since there was an addition of 86.81 per cent to the total personnel during the period of the survey (Table I), it should be expected that about an equal percentage of names would disappear permanently. The actual figure is shown in Table II to be 87.15 per cent. If the same rate of

permanent withdrawal continued through the school year of 1940-1941, it would be found that the average professional lifetime of a teacher in Indiana during the depression was approximately ten years, as was shown by the data on new names in the profession.

Table II, like Table I, shows wide variation among different groups of personnel, and in particular, withdrawals were greatest in rural schools, as could have been expected from Table I.

Less important than the permanent withdrawals were the temporary withdrawals, which are shown in Table III, a table which is constructed in the same form and by a similar procedure as Table II, and which also shows heavier turnover in rural schools than urban. A comparison of Tables I, II, and III shows that there was a decline in the total personnel during the depression years.

CHANGES OF POSITION WITHIN THE PROFESSION

Besides the thousands of teachers who entered service in Indiana during the ten depression years, and the thousands who withdrew from it, other thousands made changes of position from system to system or from one type of work to another in the same systems. Details on turnover of these types are shown in Tables IV and V. Table IV shows that it is again the rural schools which suffer the greatest loss of personnel.

Further light in changes of position within the profession is shed by figures showing the average number of school systems served. The top horizontal column of figures in Table VI shows these details. The averages do not show the rural people serving a much larger number of school systems than the urban people, but it should be remembered that they had fewer years' tenure per system, since turnover in rural schools was greater than

in urban ones, as the earlier tables revealed.

The bottom three horizontal columns of figures in Table VI pertain to a different matter. They were included in the same table in order to reduce the number of tables and thereby conserve space and typesetting. The figures in these columns show the average number of years in the profession by personnel of the various types. On the whole, they are the least significant data in the entire report, and are included chiefly for one reason: some studies of teacher tenure have been based on data for a limited number of years—such as the period of ten years in the present study—and therefore the figures in these three horizontal columns make comparisons more nearly valid between the findings of the present survey and those of such previous ones.

Obviously, since the figures on which the averages in the three bottom rows were based could not be

TABLE III
NUMBER OF NAMES DISAPPEARING TEMPORARILY EACH YEAR, BY URBAN AND RURAL, TYPE OF POSITION, AND SEX

School Year	U r b a n						R u r a l						Total
	Elementary		High School		Administr'n		Elementary		High School		Administr'n		
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	
1931-1932													
Number	7	525	24	60	20	5	115	119	85	150	58	2	924
Per cent	1.42	4.61	1.35	2.21	5.16	1.24	5.77	2.71	5.74	6.55	5.64	4.44	5.94
1932-1933													
Number	8	268	8	56	10	2	121	155	72	98	25	1	802
Per cent	1.62	5.82	.45	1.35	1.58	.85	6.18	5.49	4.86	4.77	5.71	2.22	5.42
1933-1934													
Number	5	227	19	52	15	1	157	252	95	151	25	0	955
Per cent	.61	5.24	1.07	1.92	2.37	.41	7.00	5.28	6.28	6.57	5.41	0.00	5.98
1934-1935													
Number	7	145	25	51	7	2	101	182	72	61	11	0	642
Per cent	1.42	2.07	1.50	1.14	1.11	.85	5.16	4.15	4.86	2.97	1.65	0.00	2.74
1935-1936													
Number	6	150	20	27	9	2	154	177	82	91	25	2	705
Per cent	1.22	1.85	1.15	1.00	1.42	.85	6.84	4.05	5.55	4.45	5.71	4.44	5.00
1936-1937													
Number	8	112	20	29	5	1	105	171	65	64	16	1	597
Per cent	1.62	1.60	1.15	1.07	.79	.41	5.36	5.90	4.59	5.12	2.57	2.22	2.54
1937-1938													
Number	6	167	16	29	10	1	108	155	60	44	10	2	608
Per cent	1.22	2.38	.90	1.07	1.58	.41	5.52	5.55	4.05	2.14	1.48	4.44	2.59
1938-1939													
Number	7	70	15	29	2	1	96	104	27	58	10	1	598
Per cent	1.42	1.00	.73	1.07	.52	.41	4.90	2.57	1.82	1.85	1.48	2.22	1.70
Total													
Number	52	1442	145	295	78	15	915	1295	556	657	158	9	5609
Per cent	10.55	20.56	8.06	10.81	12.52	5.59	46.75	29.45	37.52	51.97	25.44	20.00	25.90

TABLE IV

NUMBER OF TEACHERS TRANSFERRING FROM SYSTEM TO SYSTEM EACH YEAR, BY URBAN AND RURAL, TYPE OF POSITION LEFT, AND SEX

School Year	Urban						Rural						Total
	Elementary	High School	Administrat'n	Elementary	High School	Administrat'n	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	
1951-1952	8	404	26	25	15	0	255	156	204	179	90	1	1519
Number	1.62	5.76	1.47	.85	2.05	0.00	12.00	5.10	15.77	8.71	15.55	2.22	5.62
1952-1953	5	297	55	25	10	1	179	158	125	182	66	0	1081
Number	1.01	4.24	1.97	.85	1.58	.41	9.14	5.60	8.45	8.86	9.79	0.00	4.61
1953-1954	10	166	51	50	14	0	155	161	120	118	50	1	856
Number	2.05	2.57	1.75	1.11	2.21	0.00	6.89	5.67	8.10	5.74	7.42	2.22	5.56
1954-1955	8	146	41	52	8	1	147	204	142	120	44	2	895
Number	1.62	2.08	2.51	1.18	1.26	.41	7.51	4.65	9.58	5.84	6.55	4.44	5.81
1955-1956	8	162	56	44	15	5	205	328	270	258	90	0	1424
Number	1.62	2.51	3.16	1.62	2.05	1.24	10.57	7.47	18.22	11.58	14.69	0.00	6.07
1956-1957	7	128	57	44	12	0	156	236	194	207	44	0	1065
Number	1.42	1.85	2.00	1.62	1.90	0.00	7.97	5.58	15.00	10.07	6.55	0.00	4.54
1957-1958	9	145	56	54	11	1	190	318	295	294	89	4	1464
Number	1.85	2.07	3.16	1.99	1.74	.41	9.70	7.24	19.77	14.51	15.20	8.89	6.24
1958-1959	8	95	45	38	15	0	189	255	209	250	56	2	1145
Number	1.62	1.55	2.42	1.40	2.05	0.00	9.65	5.55	14.10	12.60	8.51	4.44	4.88
1959-1960	8	109	57	47	16	1	258	329	228	288	85	5	1407
Number	1.62	1.55	3.21	1.75	2.55	.41	12.16	7.49	15.58	14.01	12.51	6.67	6.00
Total	71	1650	582	555	110	7	1672	2105	1785	1885	621	15	10656
Number	14.40	25.55	21.55	12.56	17.58	2.90	85.59	47.95	120.45	91.75	92.14	28.89	45.52
Total													

greater than ten in any case, the averages do not constitute a fair measure of the length of teachers' professional careers. The influence of long careers in the profession was not allowed to operate in the computations in Table VI. Therefore, the average length of a teaching career in Indiana, as determined during the decades of the 1950's, based on the data of Tables I and II is more valid. That figure is approximately ten years.

A comparison of the urban with the rural personnel, in the averages in Table VI, again shows the urban ahead of the rural. Only in average number of years in different systems do rural teachers of any category equal or excel corresponding urban ones.

CONCLUSIONS

This analysis of names of teachers and school administrators listed in the

ten Indiana School Directories of 1950-1951 through 1959-1940 produced a mass of details. The principal conclusions of the analysis, briefly stated, are the following:

1. The ten-year period began with 25,468 teachers and administrators in the public schools of Indiana, but during the succeeding nine years 20,572 new ones entered the profession while another 20,452 withdrew permanently from it. An additional 5,609 withdrew for a year or more during the period but re-entered during the same.

2. The rate of teacher turnover during the period was such as to indicate that the average professional lifetime of teachers and administrators was approximately ten years. The rate of turnover was such as to make it the equivalent of practically a one-hundred-per-cent turnover during the ten

depression years. This rate of turnover was, without doubt, much lower than during preceding periods of equal length so far back as investigation on the subject has been made.

3. Rural schools suffered a much greater degree of teacher turnover than urban schools. In every group of personnel in the rural schools the percentage of teachers entering the profession, and the percentage leaving it permanently or temporarily, was greater than for the corresponding group of personnel in the urban schools.

4. Besides the thousands entering the profession, and the thousands leaving it permanently or temporarily during the ten depression years, 10,636, or nearly fifty per cent of the total for any single year, made one or more changes of position from one system in Indiana to another. Here

again the rate of change from rural schools was distinctly greater in every category than from city or town schools.

5. Teachers and administrators were

much more inclined to drop out of the profession permanently or temporarily, or to transfer to positions in other corporations of the state, than they were to change to other types of po-

sitions within a corporation. Only 1,290, or approximately five per cent of the teachers employed in a single year, made changes of position within a system during the ten years.

TABLE V

NUMBER OF TEACHERS CHANGING WORK WITHIN THE SAME SYSTEM EACH YEAR, BY URBAN AND RURAL, TYPE OF POSITION LEFT, AND SEX

School Year	Urban						Rural						Total
	Elementary		High School		Administrat'n		Elementary		High School		Administrat'n		
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	
1951-1952													
Number	12	20	9	7	8	4	15	22	58	8	15	5	159
Per cent	.245	.29	.51	.26	1.26	1.66	.77	.50	2.56	.59	1.95	6.67	.68
1952-1953													
Number	22	21	10	14	5	5	12	18	29	5	14	2	157
Per cent	.446	.50	.56	.52	.79	2.07	.61	.41	1.96	.24	2.08	4.44	.67
1953-1954													
Number	15	25	14	19	7	7	17	15	21	5	6	1	148
Per cent	.504	.55	.79	.70	1.11	2.90	.87	.50	1.42	.24	.89	2.22	.65
1954-1955													
Number	6	19	10	6	7	5	12	11	51	5	8	0	120
Per cent	.122	.27	.56	.22	1.11	2.07	.61	.25	2.09	.24	1.19	0.00	.51
1955-1956													
Number	8	18	10	5	5	0	15	17	50	9	15	1	151
Per cent	.162	.26	.56	.18	.79	0.00	.77	.59	2.02	.44	1.95	2.22	.56
1956-1957													
Number	22	16	14	9	8	2	20	10	22	10	7	5	145
Per cent	.446	.25	.79	.55	1.26	.85	1.02	.25	1.48	.49	1.04	11.11	.62
1957-1958													
Number	21	50	12	8	4	0	9	14	18	7	1	0	124
Per cent	.426	.45	.68	.50	.65	0.00	.46	.52	1.21	.54	.15	0.00	.53
1958-1959													
Number	19	25	15	9	4	5	15	8	8	4	6	1	115
Per cent	.585	.56	.75	.55	.65	2.07	.66	.48	.54	.19	.89	2.22	.49
1959-1960													
Number	9	17	17	7	7	6	29	9	71	7	12	0	101
Per cent	.185	.24	.96	.26	1.11	2.49	1.48	.21	4.79	.54	1.78	0.00	.81
Total													
Number	154	189	109	84	55	54	142	122	268	60	80	15	1290
Per cent	27.18	2.70	6.14	5.10	8.69	14.11	7.25	2.78	18.08	2.92	11.87	28.89	5.50

TABLE VI

AVERAGE NUMBER OF SCHOOL SYSTEMS SERVED AND AVERAGE NUMBER OF YEARS OF SERVICE DURING THE TEN DEPRESSION YEARS BY PERSONNEL OF VARIOUS TYPES AS THEIR NAMES ORIGINALLY APPEARED IN THE DIRECTORIES DURING THE PERIOD

AVERAGE NUMBER OF	U R B A N						R U R A L						Total	
	Elem.		High		Admin.		Elem.		High		Admin.			
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F		
Systems served	1.08	1.16	1.15	1.08	1.14	1.06	1.41	1.19	1.46	1.26	1.66	1.25	1.25	
Years in the profession	6.09	5.84	6.50	5.65	7.60	7.86	5.80	4.64	4.55	5.97	6.55	7.07	5.28	
Same system every year	6.05	5.86	6.25	5.51	7.65	7.88	5.50	4.59	5.64	5.51	5.29	6.82	5.08	
Different systems	6.62	5.69	6.91	5.65	7.58	7.00	6.45	5.97	6.55	5.88	7.75	8.18	6.17	

Some Postwar Problems of Vocational Education

florence Brown

Miss Brown received her Bachelor of Arts degree from the University of Michigan in 1930. In 1931 she received her Bachelor of Arts degree in Library Science from the same university, and since that time has held positions in both public and university libraries. She is also a graduate of the College of Education, Wayne University, and is now doing special graduate work in the field of vocational education in the School of Graduate Studies, University of Michigan.

The recognition of vocational education as a public responsibility in a democracy is a principle established by precedent and the continuing performance of the duties required. This is especially true in times of economic stress of one kind or another. In times of economic depression, the State provides for the vocational training of many of the citizens in order to help them secure any kind of employment at all; in times of great economic expansion, such as the present, the State provides training for workers in order that they may perform the tasks required of them. Although the emphasis in the first case is on the individual and in the second on the requirements of the social group, the principle of public responsibility for vocational education is nonetheless established in both cases. If this is true in any pre-war period, how much more true it will be after a war which has affected, in one way or another, every participating member of the democracy.

The history of wars shows that they place unusual strains on all social institutions and after them, the institutions frequently collapse or undergo revolutionary changes. The same results may reasonably be expected to

occur after the present war and to a much greater extent. Educators concerned with postwar vocational education are already cognizant of some of the expanded and enlarged problems that they will have to meet, and plans are already being made. The current periodical literature of the profession shows this realization clearly, and various solutions have been suggested.

But first, let us examine some of the problems involved. Although it is perfectly true that the welfare of the individual is usually dependent upon the health and efficiency of the social institutions of which he is a part, it is characteristic of the democratic form of government that in projecting what can be considered as "ideal" conditions, the needs of the individual are usually given first consideration. In all probability, therefore, the first problems that will be considered when the war is won is that of the need of the individual for vocational education, rather than the need of industry for the vocationally trained individual. In other words, who will require vocational education?

First and foremost is the returned soldier. The responsibility of the State toward the returned soldier is based on far more than a universal responsibility for all its citizens. Here the responsibility is doubled by circumstances.

The returned soldier presents a guidance problem perhaps greater than an educational one. If he has been wounded, the difficulty is increased. If he has escaped physical injury, he is still not the same man who went to war. He is older and more mature in ways that the civilian

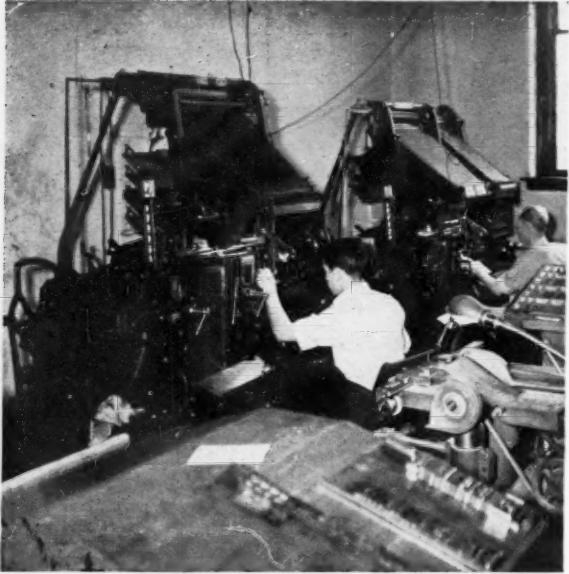
can scarcely understand. He may be psychologically maladjusted, or he may have developed in such a way that his former occupation is no longer suitable for him. His former occupation may have been eliminated in his absence by technological advances or his particular job filled by someone difficult to dislodge.

Whatever the soldier's situation may be, it is certainly the public's responsibility to provide him with the opportunity to resume his place in the economic life of the nation. This is not a matter of sentimental altruism, but a stern necessity for the benefit of society as a whole, as well as for the man himself.

There will be others in need of vocational education: the continuing group of young people growing into adulthood, workers in the armament and heavy goods industries who will no longer be needed there, workers displaced by technological changes, workers displaced by returned soldiers, war widows and orphans faced with the necessity of providing for themselves. Each of these classes will need guidance into and training for new fields or, at best, direction into vocations for which they are qualified.

Although the problems of the post-war period undoubtedly will be great, so too will the opportunities. Arthur B. Mays, Professor of Industrial Education at the University of Illinois, says of the post war period, "With the whole civilized world in dire need of machines, tools, clothing, automobiles, railroad equipment, and almost every known product of industry and with new wants which wartime inventions and developments are sure to create, there will be the greatest demand after the war for trained industrial workers the world has ever experienced."¹ He also points out that war always supplies extraordinary stimulation to industry. The establishment of agricultural and mechanical colleges and the stimulation of the

¹Arthur B. Mays, "Industrial Education in the Post-War Era," *School Shop*, Vol. 11, No. 5, p. 5. (January, 1945).



Students operating the linotype machines in the Indiana State Teachers College Print Shop

field of engineering and technical education was greatly hastened by the Civil War, and passage of the Smith-Hughes laws was speeded by the first World War. There is every reason to believe that similar stimulation will occur after the present war, both in industry and in industrial education.

It seems clear that in the postwar period there will be workers in need of vocational guidance and education and that industry will need the services of specially trained workers. At the convention of the American Vocational Association held in Boston in December of 1941, Oscar W. Rosenthal, in his address to the opening session, made the statement, "We must begin now so that when the post-war period arrives we will be 'in production' in our vocational schools and ready to deliver to industry competent, well-trained, well-equipped students."²

One of the first things to be done in setting up any workable plan for the reallocation of workers is to determine what kind of work there is to be done and what kind of workers are available. On the basis of this information, computation should be made

²Oscar W. Rosenthal, "After the War," *AVA Journal and News Bulletin*, Vol. XVII, No. 1, p. 22. (February, 1942).

to determine what is lacking in either field. Workers can then be selected and trained to meet a specific need. This seems to be a simple matter to accomplish, but such is not the case. The first step alone is extremely difficult. Occupational analyses prepared today might be hopelessly out of date in a few months, and although the United States Employment Service and the Manpower Commission are making some effort to classify the workers available, the information is of necessity incomplete and in a constant state of change. The procedure outlined is made on the assumption that it is possible for industry to estimate the number of particular types of workers that will be needed, but such is not necessarily the case. Neither is it always possible to select a worker suited for any particular type of work. Tests of this nature are not yet sufficiently well developed. Then we come to the next step, that of training the worker for the job—vocational education. Even this is still in a state of development. Educators in the vocational field are the first to admit that there is still a great deal to learn about the development of teaching techniques in their relationship to vocational education.

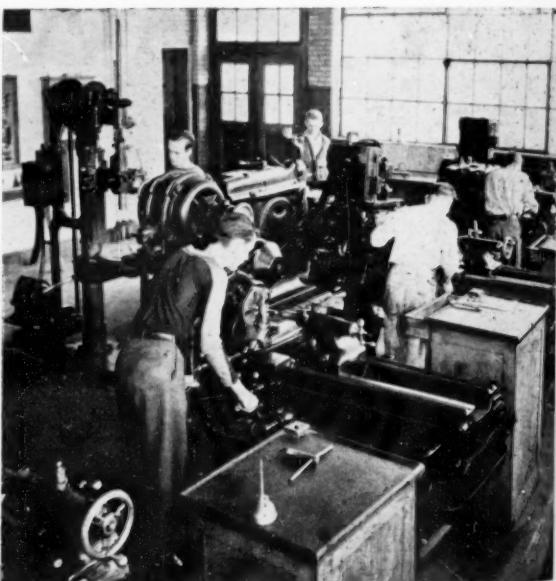
Does it appear from this that the difficulties are insurmountable? If we feel that they are, if we fail to make an intelligent attempt to meet the need, our democratic form of government has failed, and failed lamentably. But we are not going to fail, at least not entirely. Plans for meeting the need have already been advanced and

some of them put partially into operation.

"In postwar America," says Dr. George D. Strayer, "there must be developed the greatest program of adult education that the world has ever seen. . . . At the war's end, we shall find ourselves confronted with the greatest problem of guidance, education, training, and placement for millions of those discharged from the armed forces and for other millions who will be displaced because of the change from war to peace-time industry."³ He visualizes a nation in which a large percentage of the whole population will be enrolled in some part of the school system.

It is not outside the realm of possibility that some wartime agency, such as the Manpower Commission, can be carried over into the postwar period to prepare the necessary analyses of labor requirements in order to determine the kinds of workers needed. Some such agency as the Federal Board for Vocational Guidance, set up after the last war, can be utilized to take care of the guidance side of the picture and to assist in planning the kinds and the number of schools

³George G. Strayer, "Predictions of Things to Come," *School Management*, Vol. 12, No. 2, p. 57. (October, 1942).



A section of the machine shop at Indiana State Teachers College.

Indiana State Teachers College

needed to supply the necessary training.

At this point, it might be well to mention that in order to be successful, such agencies in all probability should be set up on a local basis, with federal aid and all-over guidance. The reason for this is, briefly: one of the greatest difficulties in getting returned soldiers to accept vocational training after the last war was that the guidance officers operated from camps or demobilization centers. To the soldier, eager to get home, this represented an unwarranted delay and was scarcely in the proper frame of mind to make long-time plans for his future or to accept with grace the advice of vocational counsellors. Some attempt was made to carry on the work locally, but it was done half-heartedly and with insufficient funds, so that the results were not entirely good. We cannot afford to make this mistake a second time. There is more involved than the problem of guidance. There must be provision for the employment of the restrained worker and for follow-up after employment. Local agencies are best suited to perform such work.

Mr. Rosenthal has outlined the following program for meeting these needs. The points he makes seem to be well taken.

1. There must be a well-ordered system of vocational guidance, a laboratory of individual possibilities.
2. There must be a system of co-ordination to bring about complete understanding between the ultimate employer, labor, and the local school system.
3. Some method might be devised whereby either the great industrial plants built for the war emergency could be converted to school purposes or schools built to serve larger areas or regions than are now permitted to the various local governmental agencies; the necessary enabling legislation must be enacted, coupled with a device to provide transportation or housing for students where the question of distances is involved.
4. Careful consideration must be given to the development of new industries and the problems arising in connection with them. The

teacher must not stop learning. He must keep in close contact with the changes and progress being made in industry and commerce, thus continuing his training.

5. The vocational school must take its place in this postwar development, not merely as a center for broadened academic instruction, but as a center of co-ordinated training in which the actual job experience and the related technical training become one undertaking, whereby the school instruction is no longer auxiliary to the actual job, but the job itself is part of the system of education.⁴

Let us assume that the first steps have been accomplished, that is, analysis of the individuals available for retraining and the selection of which individuals will be provided with the training. The next step is to provide as efficiently as possible the necessary vocational education. How is this to be accomplished?

"It seems clear, therefore, that every known type of vocational-industrial training class and program which has been tested by experience and found effective will be enormously expanded in the postwar era. This will doubtless mean great development of part-time classes, evening schools, factory schools and training programs, apprenticeship, foreman training classes, and full-time trade schools and classes . . . In any case all factors now apparent indicate the expansion of vocational education in the United States on an unprecedented scale."⁵

In all this, of course, the picture screen will play a role even more important than it is at the present time. A vast reservoir of motion pictures and slidefilms is being rapidly built up for vocational training as part of the war production vocational training program. These films have official approval for the most part and have been designed to speed the teaching of skills and vocation in the elementary phase, thus saving much time and labor for the already overburdened instructor who can put additional emphasis on the more de-

tailed and vital phases of any course.

One of the most universally recognized needs of the postwar period is the need for area vocational schools. It has been stated that "Regional or area vocational schools will be essential to post-war vocational education."⁶ This statement appears in one form or another in almost all current writing on the subject. There is ample precedent for such schools in the existence of the many consolidated schools now in operation in the country. The need for them seems to be generally recognized.

It is true that any such program as outlined above will prove to be extremely costly. In 1940 alone, \$50,625,492 was spent for vocational schools established under vocational education acts. In teacher training institutions \$4,454,534 was spent for vocational teachers.⁷ These costs increased enormously in 1941 and 1942 and may be expected to increase to a far greater extent after the war. True, the cost is great, but the economic loss due to failure to meet this vital need would be of staggering proportions.

In the period of great economic upheaval that will inevitably occur after the war, vocational education will be presented with its greatest problem and its greatest opportunity. It must be prepared to say to the dislocated worker, whether returned soldier or civilian, "Never mind that old job. We can help you prepare for a better one." And it must be prepared to do the job.

⁴Oscar W. Rosenthal, *op. cit.*

⁵U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *Statistical Abstract*, 1941, p. 155.

A recent War Department bulletin, *Pre-Induction Training in Vocational Schools, Vocational Departments and Trade Schools*, tells why the Army needs trained specialists, of the training now provided through vocational education, and of the ways in which the present pre-induction program can be expanded. Order P. I. T. 350 from the Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.

An Analysis of the Opposition of the Medical Profession to Modifications in The System of Medical Care

Wilbur Brookover

Dr. Brookover, Instructor in Social Studies at Indiana State Teachers College, like many others, turned from teaching for the duration to become an instructor in the Navy. He is now a lieutenant (j. g.) and is in Washington, D. C., with the Educational Services Program of the Navy.

The question of how an organized group comes to have a given opinion or attitude has seldom been the subject of critical analysis. This is the question which we wish to ask in regard to the medical profession and its attitudes towards any modifications in the system of medical care. For clues to the answer of this question we turn to an analysis of the social situation in which the doctor lives. An examination of the economic, sociological, and psychological forces which play upon the doctor should reveal the motivation for their objections to a modification of the system of medical care.

Several factors in the situation which affect the physicians in the formation of their attitude will be discussed. This is in accordance with the belief that human behavior is the result of the individual's reaction to a multiplicity of other personalities and factors acting upon him. From this point of view it is only by a combination of the various influences that we have an accurate analysis of the question.

In a recent study, Oliver Garceau¹ has analysed the influence of the

¹Oliver Garceau, "Organized Medicine Enforces Its 'Party-Line,'" *The Public Opinion Quarterly*, Vol. 4, No. 5, pp. 408-423. (September, 1940).

medical organization in the formation of the doctor's opinion. No one would deny the potency of organized medicine in enforcing its "party-line," but it is my opinion that this particularistic explanation is insufficient. In the first place, it is necessary to explain why the organization powers hold their opinion, and second, why the otherwise independent individual doctor accepts the pre-formed opinion of organization powers. Propaganda, boycott, and other disciplinary measures are effective, but other factors in the situation should be noted.

In this problem we are involved in a study of motivation at the subconscious or semiconscious level, for the explanations here given are not the ones commonly expressed by the doctors. We maintain that the expressed reasons are largely rationalizations, and that the real reasons are to be found in the social milieu. We shall attempt to apply the commonly accepted theories of human motivation to that portion of our society upon which our culture confers a high position in order to determine what factors in the situation cause them to take this present attitude.

The desire to gain recognition or status is one of the fundamental motives or drives in the life of any person. In turn the status which any person holds is dependent upon the role or part which the individual plays in that society. Chief among the status-conferring factors in our society are: (1) The occupation which the individual follows, and (2) The success achieved in that vocation as determined by monetary income.

If we examine the medical profession in regard to these factors, we find that probably no other field of work offers so great an opportunity for maintaining a satisfactory combination of them. In the first place it is the professions which carry with them the highest rank in our society. Among these are medicine, law, college teaching or research, engineering, and ministry. A man who is a member of one of these professions is immediately recognized, but success as measured primarily in terms of income may gain comparable recognition for the business man or any other worker. However, the most successful businessman or banker is considered somewhat less highly than the successful professional man.

One need not search further than to examine his own experience to realize that the status accorded the doctor in our society is the highest of all professions. However, further evidence was obtained by asking people to rank the members of various occupational groups according to their relative social position. At Butler University, undergraduate students gave the doctor a mean rank of 2.08 as compared to 2.17 for bankers, 2.52 for lawyers, 4.2 for college professors, and 5.92 for merchants.² At Indiana State Teachers College the mean rating of 100 students in sociology for the doctor was 1.87 as compared to the college professor at 2.44, the lawyer at 2.64, the banker at 3.54, and the teacher at 5.92.² The survey conducted by Walter Couto is further evidence of the same fact. In this study 20 professions were rated by medical, engineering, and law students of Wisconsin in 1934-1935.³ In the composite analysis of all the ratings the physicians rank first without a close second. The dis-

²Unpublished data compiled by the author.

³H. H. Walter Couto, "The Relative Social Prestige of Twenty Professions as Judged by Three Groups of Professional Students," Ph.D. Thesis, University of Wisconsin Library, 1936. See also his article by the same title in *Social Forces*, Vol. 14, pp. 522-29. (May, 1936).

Indiana State Teachers College

tance on the scale (which indicates differences in social prestige as measured by a paired comparison analysis) between the physicians and the second ranking profession (college professors) is greater than the distance between the rankings of any two successive groups.

Further evidence that the occupation of the doctor is considered to carry with it the highest social prestige is found in the study by Anderson⁴. He found that for social prestige, contribution to society, and economic return, the physician had the highest mean ranking by 675 men students of North Carolina State College. One notes from these and other studies that not only do the doctors rate themselves at the top, but they are placed at the top by other groups more often than is any other profession.

Not only is the doctor accorded high status because of his professional affiliation, but also because of the general feeling that he is the most successful person from the monetary point of view. Although the possibilities of income in the medical profession are not as great as they are in the business field, they are very satisfactory in comparison with other professional groups and with the population in general. In 1929, according to Dodd and Penrose,⁵ approximately 50 per cent of all doctors of medicine had a net income above \$8000 annually while practically no teachers of similar training had such an income, and less than five per cent of all white families had incomes over that figure. Fifty per cent of all doctors made net incomes of approximately \$5000 or more, while less than five per cent of the teachers made the above figure, and only seven to eight per cent of all white families made so much. The median net income of the teachers in comparison was about \$2400. On the

other hand, while 20 per cent of the teachers and 60 per cent of all white families received less than \$2000 net income, only about 11 per cent of the doctors made as little as \$2000 or less. In 1933 the figures are some less, but still quite favorable to the medical profession.

One can readily note from these figures that the chance of getting a moderately high income is much greater in the medical profession than it is in the comparable field of teaching (college and high school). The chance of receiving an income in the higher brackets is as great in few if any occupations. If one considers all those who undertake a business career and fail, the medical profession becomes more attractive from an economic standpoint. This fact is keenly realized by the doctors themselves in spite of the common opinion that the doctors all enter the profession because of their desire to serve humanity.

The doctors are made keenly aware of the position which they hold at the pinnacle of the status pyramid in several ways. First, they are selected on a strictly competitive basis under a system in which the competition lasts over a long period of training. Since many more people desire to become doctors than the medical powers will permit, only those who are the most aggressive and most able to meet this competition survive the struggle. As these few see their former associates drop by the wayside, they are more and more impressed with the fact that they are the chosen few. Since they have been so frequently impressed with their superiority, it is only to be expected that they feel that they deserve all the rewards in wealth or prestige which they may receive.

Second, there is a rather general belief that the doctors for the most part come from lower economic and occupational strata. This is necessarily true because any doctor who was not in the highest social status has risen to an extent in the status pyramid. It has been proposed that this fact alone explains the opposition of the profession to any scheme for the socialization of

medicine. This is based on the commonly accepted belief that any business man, manufacturer, or any other person who has successfully risen from the ranks will believe more than the average in the *laissez faire* doctrine of rugged individualism. An individual of this type usually feels that he got to the top by hard work and that others could do the same. That this feeling is present is evidenced by such statements as the following made by a member of the medical profession: "There are certain social and economic principles we should bear in mind in any judgement of these subjects; one is that the individual should do for himself as far as possible; that the state, by stepping in and making one man assume the obligation of another, by doing for the other man what he should do for himself, is pursuing a course of unsound public policy."⁶ The fact that their high status is new to them no doubt is a factor in the explanation of the doctors' attitude. It is an error, however, to assume that this is the sole explanation, and it remains for the evidence to show the significance of this factor.

It is the belief of the writer that this condition is a single item in a complex of factors which create in the doctor a fear that any change in the system of medical practice will cause him to lose his position at the pinnacle of the status pyramid. Even if it should be shown that the doctors would lose little or nothing in regard to either professional status or income by a system of health insurance or some modification of the medical system, we could still expect the profession to be opposed to it. They are sure of the position they now hold at the "top of the heap" but are not sure of what change a modification would bring in their position or income. Since they can get no higher in the scale of "social position" by any change that

⁴W. A. Anderson, "Occupational Attitude of College Men," *Journal of Social Psychology*, Vol. 5, pp. 455-66.

⁵Paul A. Dodd, and E. E. Penrose, *Economic Aspects of Medical Service*, (Graphic Arts Press, Inc., Washington D. C., 1939), pp. 201-05.

⁶W. A. Pursey, (M.D.), "Some Tendencies in the Business of the Practice of Medicine," *Journal of American Medical Association*, Vol. 90, (June 9, 1928), p. 1897.

might be made, the only shift, if any came, that could result would be in a downward direction. This being the case, one could only expect the profession to be in favor of the *status quo*.

Furthermore, it is quite evident that the doctors believe that any change in the system of medical care will result in a degradation of their position. It matters not whether this belief is justifiable, for as has so often been quoted from W. I. Thomas, "If a man believes a situation to be real, it is real in its consequences." And the doctors as a whole believe that they will "take a beating" in any change that may be made.

Let us now turn to a consideration of the influences that have resulted in this belief. First is the fact that the physician is comparing his position with that of various government employees on the assumption that any change made will result in his becoming an employee of the government. By any such comparison the prospects can only be discouraging, for he now has a much more satisfactory status than any such group. The most common comparison is that with the teaching group; in this case the physician holds the greatly superior place. Whether or not the assumption that the physician will become an employee of the government comparable to the teacher makes no difference, for the propaganda⁷ which he reads and hears has convinced the average physician that all proposals will result in such a scheme.

A second influence is the belief among medical men that any change in the system will destroy the possibility of getting the high incomes which have always been a lure to the private practitioner, although there is little evidence to indicate that the profession would be either better or more

poorly paid under a modified system. The physicians as a whole are convinced that the opportunity to make the more luxurious incomes which are available to the more aggressive men under the fee-for-service system would be eliminated under a system of insurance. This fear of loss of high income is not directly expressed by the men involved, but it is the underlying factor in most of the expressions in which they argue that any change in the system would destroy all initiative or incentive to do good work. The physician's remark is apropos: "If it weren't for the possibility of receiving these very high incomes, there would be no incentive for the doctor." In a slightly different vein Findlay remarks, "Take away individuality and you destroy initiative and independence in the medical practice which is essential to the *happiness and prosperity* of the doctors as is independence in citizenship."⁸ The statements of Pursey also are illuminating in the understanding of this attitude. He says, "Individualism in a profession is wholesome . . . competition . . . benefits directly the professions and indirectly the society which it serves."⁹ Again speaking in regard to corporate practice, he remarks, "The situation is economically unfair. Some of these institutions have gone so far . . . as proposing to practice under what the profession has found it necessary to charge . . . to tell the profession what is the maximum it should charge."¹⁰

One could continue to cite evidence indefinitely to prove this point, but further recitation of such material only adds to the bulk of the article. The presentation of this evidence is not cited as an indictment of the doctors or to indicate that they are more materialistic than any other group. In fact, they probably are among the least materialistic of all occupational groups. It is presented only to indicate that the desire for profit is an under-

lying factor contrary to the arguments usually proposed by the professional spokesmen. This discussion of the fear that a change will cause a loss of income is presented only because it is thought that it throws some light on the reason for the majority attitude of the profession. As pointed out previously, the question of income is intimately associated with the determination of status or position in our society, and the maintenance of their high status is a fundamental motive of the medical profession.

Closely connected with this discussion is the argument often presented that change in the system of medical service would destroy the personal contact between the physician and the patient which is claimed to be necessary for satisfactory medical service. No one would question the desirability of having the doctor take a personal interest in his patient's welfare, but one might question whether the present system of specialized private practice encourages that interest any more than, or as much as, a group medical scheme. The only change that seems necessary in the relationship between the patient and the man he consults in any modification of the medical system would be the modification of the system of payments. In all the various proposals the main purpose is to predetermine the financial obligation so that it would not interfere with the character of service rendered.

A third influence which has caused the average physician to believe that any change in the system of medical service will degrade his present high status in our society is the continual flow of propaganda from the American Medical Association of which he is a part.¹¹ This propaganda comes most fluently from the pen of Dr. Morris Fishbein, who is the editor of the Association's Journal. As indicated in the following excerpt from his edi-

⁷It is here that the influence of the *Journal of the American Medical Association* is very noticeable. As pointed out by Oliver Garneau (op. cit.), the physician depends upon the *Journal* for his information on all such subjects.

⁸Palmer Findlay, "State Medicine," *Nebraska Medicine Journal*, Vol. 14, p. 483, (December, 1929).

⁹W. A. Pursey, *op. cit.*

¹⁰*Ibid.*

¹¹Garneau's position that the opinion of the profession is the result of the propaganda of their organ is well taken, but this tells us nothing about why the organization leaders hold that opinion.

itorial. Fishbein gives little evidence to explain why he is opposed to various changes, but he gives cleverly worded bits of propaganda to arouse the emotions of the reader.

"The alignment is clear—on the one side the forces representing the great foundations, public health officialdom, social theory—even socialism and communism inciting to revolution; on the other side the organized medical profession of the country urging an orderly revolution. The physicians of this country are the only group with the knowledge, training, and experience necessary to practice medicine. Intent on their daily and nightly task of preventing disease, healing the sick, and ministering to the afflicted, they have given scant attention and but little of their time to a consideration of the way in which their work was being invaded by the octopus of big business. This is the question of Americanism versus Sovietism for the American people."¹²

Since all we get out of such writings as this is flag waving and raising up of the shibboleth of communism coupled with an appeal to the emotions of fear and sympathy, we must turn elsewhere for an explanation of why the Medical Association organ is so violently opposed to modifications. No doubt Fishbein and others in the Association have been influenced by the same factors as have others in the profession—those we have already discussed (comparison of their status with that of government employees and the fear of losing the possibility of high income). However, it has been suggested that there is another factor that causes the Association organ to take the uncompromising stand which it does and pass on this attitude to its readers. Rorty believes that this attitude is due to the method in which the American Medical Association is financed.¹³

¹²Morris Fishbein, Editorial following the report of the Committee on the Costs of Medical Care, *Journal of American Medical Association*. (December 2, 1932).

¹³James Rorty, *American Medicine Mobilizes*, (W. W. Norton, New York, 1939), p. 95.

In the early years of its history the American Medical Association was a struggling organization always financially embarrassed. In 1866 it was bankrupt, but in 1881 it established the *Journal* which later solved its financial problem. The magazine *Fortune* says concerning this venture,

"Such a Journal would constitute one of the best mediums of legitimate medical advertising," mused the Board of Trustees. From the beginning the *Journal* made money, first in odd thousands, later in tens and presently in the hundreds of thousands. Last year, the biggest to date, the *Journal's* gross earnings were \$1,650,000 and its net \$670,800."¹⁴

The dues and subscriptions which the members of the Association pay make up only a minor portion of the total income of the Association. Of the total earning of the American Medical Association in 1937, \$1,654,203.74, only \$670,170.51, or a little over 40 per cent came from such sources. Of the remainder, \$841,042.57 came from advertising in the *Journal*.¹⁵ This breakdown of the income of the American Medical Association immediately raises the question of what would become of the medical hierarchy and its very effective organ if that portion of the income coming from advertising were cut off. The major portion of this advertising comes from the manufacturers of the so-called "ethical proprietaries" which are acceptable to the medical profession. Under the proposals of group practice there is danger that the income of these manufacturers may be threatened because each group might employ its own pharmacist.

If this is a real possibility, one can understand the opposition of the Medical Association officials, for if they should lose this prolific source of income, all of the activities of the Association would have to be curtailed. This may explain in part why the Association organ has been so absolutely unyielding in its opposition to all group practice or insurance pro-

¹⁴Fortune Magazine, November, 1938.

¹⁵James Rorty, *op. cit.*, pp. 106-108.

grams which are in no sense "state" medicine.

The significance of this connection between the American Medical Association and the drug producers can not at this point be definitely evaluated as a factor in determining the attitude of the medical organ, but it is entirely possible that, coupled with other factors, it has played its part. Regardless of the reasons for the *Journal's* uncompromising attitude and emotional appeal, we must include it as one of the very definite influences which have operated on the physicians to cause them to fear as well as oppose any change in the system of medical practice.

The position of the physicians is typical of the resistance of any vested interest group to formal social change. Their position is not a mercenary one, but one in which they sincerely believe that the change would be harmful to the basic tenets of our social order. In their minds a change in the present system of medical care would destroy American democracy as well as all the accomplishments of medical science. Noss¹⁶ has analysed the steps in the development of such attitudes under four headings. (1) The group comes to think that it is the center of American civilization. (2) members of the group feel that they are in a particular position to test the conditions of society. (3) the group becomes isolated and its members talk only to each other. (4) the group builds an ideology and projects it on society; since they think change is harmful, all people do.

This pattern fits the foregoing analysis of the physicians' attitude reasonably well. The high status of the profession is such that the doctors can easily feel that their group is in position to know more about the condition of society than any one else. Furthermore, the self-propagandizing of the group through the *Journal* and

¹⁶T. K. Noss, "Resistance to Formal Social Change," (Unpublished manuscript read before the Indiana Academy of Social Science, October, 1941, Indianapolis.)

the strong professional in-group tend to isolate them from the rest of society. Thus far the profession has been successful in projecting its ideology onto society.

This ideology of the physicians has been well adapted to one of the popular concepts of our current culture. This is the fundamental precept of our culture that every one should be free to achieve whatever he is capable of achieving without interference. This has been particularly impressed upon the great majority of the doctors because they have risen from the ranks through a hard struggle. They feel that any one who makes the effort can match this attainment, and they further feel that any one who survives this struggle should be permitted the opportunity to reap his deserved harvest.

There are several other factors which have instilled in the physician this spirit of independence and opposition to any control or supervision. Because of the nature of his work and the independent organization of the medical system, the physician has always played a role in which he is subordinate to no one and he has learned to depend upon himself in all situations. The very nature of his work makes the doctor an individualist. Daily in his life he makes decisions on which rests the lives of many people. In many of these decisions he does not have the opportunity to consult any one; he must take the responsibility not only for his own welfare, but for that of his patient. The fact that he constantly plays such a role leads him to project similar roles onto all other people. Thus he assumes that all people could and should accept complete responsibility for their own welfare.

Under the present system of private fee-for-service practice there is practically no way to check upon the doctor to determine if he made the correct decision or the sad one. Although we know from experience that doctors do make mistakes, and probably sometimes with a financial incentive, the charges of malpractice against them are insignificant in number. No one is

in position to question the decision of any doctor except another doctor of comparable training. This is signified by the fact that convictions for malpractice are almost impossible unless another physician will testify that the defendant was negligent in the service which he rendered the patient. The occurrence of such a testimony is so rare as to be insignificant. The ethics of the profession, and possibly the fear of a reprimand, cause the doctor to refuse such testimony unless the defendant is a quack or a physician of questionable reputation. Thus we see that the doctor must not only depend upon himself in his work, but also that he is free of any supervision which might point out his mistakes.

This freedom from supervision is a condition which practically no other worker, upon whom the life and happiness of other people depend, possesses. The profession is justifiably jealous of its position in this regard. This fact seems to be a partial explanation for the development of a strong ethnocentric feeling among the approved members of the profession and an unrelenting war on all quacks. By banding together to establish standards and improve medical practices they have done much to gain the confidence of the people and ward off any serious criticisms of their work. As a result of this improvement which has been made in the standards of the medical practice, the profession feels that it is justified in saying that theirs is the "best medical system in the world." Certainly, since they are convinced of this, they are also certain that there is no one outside their group who is in a position to question their acts as expertly trained practitioners.

This point of view should supplement our previous explanations of the profession's attitude toward change in our medical system. Almost any of the various systems proposed would include some provision for supervision of the physicians' work. Thus, although the doctor would probably continue to make many decisions independent of consultation, the number would be decreased. But what is more

important, he would have to justify those decisions to a superior in the system.

Probably the most important reason why the doctor objects to losing his independence is that he, like everyone else, feels much less important if he is subordinate to some one else than he does if he is his own boss. In Freudian terms, his ego would suffer and he would have to lower his opinion of himself. This is no criticism of the doctor, for any one in a similar position would resist so long as possible any change which would force him to accept what he considers a subordinate position.

In summary it may be said that the opposition of the medical profession to any change in the system of medical care results from two general forces. (1) The physician fears the loss of his high social and economic status as well as his freedom of action and freedom from supervision. (2) Through its ethnocentric feeling, isolation, and self-propagandizing, the profession has built up an ideology in which it is maintained that any change would be harmful to our society.

Illustrious Alumni

EDITH M. BADER

Although Miss Bader received her Bachelor of Arts degree from Indiana State in 1910, her teaching career was already well established, for she had taught in the elementary schools in Terre Haute and was at that time a critic teacher in the College Laboratory School. She became a member of the College faculty as instructor in education in 1914 and remained until 1917 when she left to teach English at Tsing Hua College in China. She returned from China in 1920 and in 1921 completed the requirements for her Master of Arts degree at Columbia University. Since then, Miss Bader has been both assistant superintendent of schools and principal of the Perry Elementary School at Ann Arbor, Michigan.

Indiana State Teachers College

The Appeal of the Newbery Prize Books to Children in The Elementary Grades

Sarah Catherine Mehringer

Miss Mehringer, who has the Master of Science degree from Indiana State Teachers College, teaches at Rea School in Terre Haute. She has tried to show in this study just how popular the Newbery Prize books are and what makes them popular or unpopular.

The events of the past year cause teachers to realize more than ever the importance of developing in the youth of our land those essential knowledges and skills and that devotion to our democratic way of life which make for national strength and unity. Probably no other influence is greater than that of the literature placed before the child. Many children are being forced to choose for themselves ways of spending their leisure hours, for their parents are engaged in war work and show a tendency to neglect the children. The teacher gives real service when she recommends pleasurable reading materials.

If the teachers of America are to develop within the child wholesome attitudes and values through meaningful reading, certainly a great responsibility now rests upon the teacher of reading. No longer will the development of effective habits and skills be sufficient. The teacher will have to develop an understanding of the social conditions under which children live in order to furnish for them materials which may contribute positively to their growth.

In order to meet the various interests and needs of the child, the teacher must become familiar with vast

quantities of children's literature both old and new. Reading material must be reappraised in terms of the extent to which it fosters sturdy, well-rounded growth.

In this study, only one group of books was considered—the Newbery Prize books. The purpose was to determine, if possible, whether these books appeal to the fundamental interests of children in the elementary grades or are actually overlooked and neglected, as many teachers and librarians claim.

The Newbery Prize books are the books which have been awarded the Newbery medal. This medal has been awarded annually since 1922, at the Children's Librarians' Section of the American Library Association for the most distinguished book for children written by a citizen or resident of the United States and published for the first time during the preceding year. It must be creative writing in the sense that reprints and compilations are not eligible. Frederic G. Melcher, editor of *Publishers' Weekly* and founder of *Childrens' Book Week*, is the donor of the medal. It was he who suggested that the medal be named for John Newbery, the earliest publisher of children's books, in recognition of his services to the reading interests of children. The designer of the medal was Rene Paul Chambellan, a young sculptor of note. The purpose of the award is to encourage and maintain a high standard in writing for children.

Each year when a Newbery award is made, both praise and criticism are voiced liberally. No one else seems to put these books upon the same high pedestal as do producers, publishers, and fellow authors. Librarians usually criticize and we wonder why, for the award is made by librarians. Studies which have been made do not agree in every respect. One investigator feels that the books are too difficult for even the most superior sixth graders, while another finds the children in the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades do choose them and rank them among their general favorites. It was hoped that through this study such conflicting opinions might at least be clarified. Since each one of these books is supposed to be a distinguished contribution to children's literature, teachers should know whether or not it would be worth while to recommend them in the grades in which they are teaching.

In order to find out what children in general think of the Newbery books, the following questions were considered: (1) How many children read the books? (2) Are the books liked, and if not, what qualities are lacking? (3) At what grade level are the books most frequently read? Three methods were used in answering these questions: first, a check was made on library lendings; second, the personal opinions of librarians and teachers were considered and the findings of previous investigations analyzed; and third, a simple questionnaire to be given to children was prepared. This questionnaire was approved by the Director of Studies in the Terre Haute City Schools and by the principals in the buildings in which it was given. It was administered by classroom teachers.

Questionnaires were filled out in the grades four, five, and six in the following elementary schools: Lange, Davis Park, Sandison, Rea, and Laboratory in Terre Haute, Indiana, and Rankin just outside the city. A limited number of seventh and eighth grade students were questioned. They were in the Rankin School and the McLean Junior High School. The other build-

ings named have the first six grades only. Nine hundred and eight questionnaires were returned. The results tabulated should give a fair estimate, as children with varying social and economic backgrounds and children with different mental capacities and reading abilities were represented.

Library facilities are not equal in the buildings represented. The buildings were chosen with this in mind in order to see if availability of books would make any perceptible difference in reading. The Emilie Fairbanks Public Library is open to any of these children, of course, but those living a long distance from it are not always permitted by parents to take advantage of the services offered there. The Rankin School and the Laboratory School have splendid libraries within their own buildings, and complete sets of the Newbery books may be found in them as in the public library. Sandison children have no library and must therefore depend upon the public library. Rea and Lange have branch libraries which are open once a week. Not all of the Newbery books are to be found in these branch libraries, but pupils of Lange sometimes use the McLean Library which is well equipped and has daily service. Rea pupils often have older brothers and sisters to get books for them at McLean or at Gerstmeyer Technical High School. Davis Park has a three-day branch library.

The questionnaires were filled out during the last weeks of the school semester and were very often given in connection with discussions and recommendations for summer reading; so there was no cause for embarrassment on the part of children who had not read the books. Since there were no grades given and no spirit of contest or rivalry, there was no reason for checking any book which had not really been read.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Several studies of the Newbery Prize books have been made and published. Since they help to solve the problem at hand a brief summary of these studies will be given.

When the Newbery Medal books were thirteen in number, Mary E. Townes¹ made a study of their popularity. Her conclusions were based upon the results obtained from questionnaires returned by twenty-six librarians and sixty-two children. In a summary statement, she says: "My results are necessarily superficial, but I hope they will be suggestive and provocative."

According to the Townes study, children's librarians from San Francisco to Atlanta, from Boston to Birmingham, two to one, said that the majority of the Newbery books were not popular. On the other hand, the children who were questioned about the Newbery books they had read, with one exception, liked the books. Most of the librarians agreed that the Newbery books were not so popular as a standard group of children's books. A few felt that they were of the same popularity, and some felt that the Newbery books were more popular.

There was a difference of opinion among children, too. The majority of the children liked the Newbery books as well as or better than the standard ones which they had read but not so well as the favorites of their own choice.

When the books were arranged according to popularity as designated by the librarians, the lists scored and averaged, the final rank within the groups was as follows:

Most popular: *Voyages of Dr. Doolittle* and *Smoky, the Cowhorse*.

Average (in descending order): *Invincible Louisa*, *Hitty*, *Her First Hundred Years*, and *The Dark Frigate*.

Below average (in descending order): *Trumpeter of Krakow*, *Gay-neck*, *Waterless Mountain*, *The Cat Who Went to Heaven*, *Tales from Silver Lands*, and *Shen of the Sea*.

Least popular: *The Story of Mankind*.

Thus, only two of the thirteen books were popular with the masses. But,

¹*Library Journal*, 60:839-41, November 1, 1935.

Mary E. Townes found that the Newbery books had a particular appeal to some children, that the books were taken and liked when introduced by parent, teacher, or librarian, and that the books lend themselves admirably to storytelling and reading aloud.

Rose Zeligs² made a study of the Newbery books after eighteen had been selected.

Her study was limited to the reaction of one hundred and fifty sixth-grade children from one school, and these children were far above the average in reading ability. Their social and economic background was very good.

She found that only a small number of children were reading the books and that still a smaller number liked them. However, there were some who praised them highly. The books listed as most popular with the children were: *The Voyages of Dr. Doolittle*, *Smoky, the Cowhorse*, *Caddie Woodlawn*, and *Young Fu of the Upper Yangtze* (perhaps).

Because of the limited number of written reports handed in, no definite conclusions were drawn, but she says in her summary:

Most of the Newbery Prize books seem, on the whole, too literary for the average child and often also for the superior child. Better taste can be developed in children by encouraging them to read things that are a little difficult; but books must appeal to the fundamental interests of children, which, for twelve-year-olds, include plot, adventure, and action, and that which is true to life.³

A very thorough and splendid piece of work was completed in 1942 by Arta F. Lawrence,⁴ Assistant Professor of Education, Eastern Oregon College of Education. This study which involved approximately one thousand grade records covering a period of seven years, 1935-1942, was made in order to find out what use

²*Elementary English Review*, 17: 218-20, October, 1940.

³*Ibid.* p. 222.

⁴A. F. Lawrence, "Facts About the Newbery Books," *Library Journal*, 67:942-5, November, 1942.

children had actually made of the Newberry books.

The fact that these records were kept daily for that long period in order to facilitate regular return of the books and primarily to learn more about children's interest in reading, but with no thought of studying the Newberry books separately, makes the findings impartial and unprejudiced.

The children, too, were comparatively unselected, as the children in the Campus School which served as a laboratory for the college were admitted from any area within the city limits.

Library facilities, however, were unique. These children had access not only to a standard library of about 6,000 volumes which included four copies of each of the Newberry books, but to a fine public library of over 8,000 volumes. Both libraries not only made books available but placed them in a setting so inviting that children would read for pleasure and enjoyment.

The results of the investigation showed that books most widely read were *Caddie Woodlawn*, *Voyages of Dr. Doolittle*, and *Smoky*, in the order named. Following these were *Roller Skates*, *White Stag*, *Dobry*, *Gay-Neck*, *Dark Frigate*, *Invincible Louisa*, *Hitty*, *Tales from Silver Lands*, *Thimble Summer*, *Waterless Mountain*, *Trumpeter of Krakow*, *Cat Who Went to Heaven*, *Daniel Boone*, and *Call It Courage*. *Daniel Boone* and *Call It Courage* were too new to be judged as children might eventually judge them.

As to grade placement, it was discovered that the children in the fifth grade read the greatest number of the Newberry books, those in the fourth the next, and those in the sixth the next. Then came grade seven followed by grade three with a few readers.

The following statement is made:

Children do choose the Newberry books and rank them among their general favorites, especially during the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades. Common agreement with other studies may justify the prediction that *Voyages of Dr. Doolittle*, *Cad-*

die Woodlawn, and *Smoky* are well on the way to becoming children's favorites.⁵

A REPORT ON THE FINDINGS OF THE PRESENT STUDY

Number of books read. In answer to the question, "How many children read the books?" the results of the questionnaires showed that out of nine hundred and eight children, there were three hundred and ten who had read none of the Newberry books. The other five hundred and ninety-eight had read at least one, and many had read several of the books. The highest number read by any one child was fourteen.

Table I shows the actual number of children reading each book. The books are arranged in order of their popularity.

Table II shows the actual number in each grade who read some of the books and also the number who read none. Over 75 per cent of the eighth graders had read at least one of the books. The percentage of children in the other grades who had read one or more of the books was as follows: Seventh grade, 66.6 per cent; sixth grade, 69.3 per cent; fifth grade, 70.5 per cent; and fourth grade, 48.5 per cent.

⁵Ibid. p. 945.

Popularity according to the questionnaire. The second question considered was, "Do children as a rule like the books, and if not, what qualities or characteristics are lacking?

One of the outstanding results of the questionnaire was the fact that comparatively few children were able to tell why they did or did not like a book. Many said, "I read this book and liked it but can not remember what it was about." Some said, "No comments." Many failed to make comments. Their papers were blank except for the checks on the ones read. Perhaps an 8A girl spoke for many others when she wrote, "Some of these books were read to me when I was in the lower grades. The others I read in grades four, five, and six on reading contests. So, under the circumstances, I do not remember much about them."

Very few children said they did not finish books because they did not like them, but many said that they did not get to finish their books because they were due at the library.

Most of the children who read the books liked them.

While a few of the books have been quite popular, they are, in general, not widely read.

What teachers and librarians say. Most teachers frankly admit that they

TABLE I

NUMBER OF CHILDREN WHO HAD READ THE NEWBERY PRIZE BOOKS

Title	Author	Number	Rank
<i>Voyages of Dr. Doolittle</i>	Lofting	511	1
<i>Daniel Boone</i>	Daugherty	289	2
<i>The Cat Who Went to Heaven</i>	Coatsworth	101	3
<i>Smoky, the Cowhorse</i>	James	99	4
<i>The Matchlock Gun</i>	Edmonds	92	5
<i>Hitty, Her First Hundred Years</i>	Field	81	6
<i>Tales from Silver Lands</i>	Fringer	54	7
<i>Caddie Woodlawn</i>	Brink	50	8
<i>Thimble Summer</i>	Enright	38	9
<i>Roller Skates</i>	Sawyer	32	10
<i>Gay-Neck</i>	Mukerji	31	11.5
<i>Young Fu of the Upper Yangtze</i>	Lewis	31	11.5
<i>Call It Courage</i>	Sperry	29	13.5
<i>The White Stag</i>	Seredy	29	13.5
<i>Shen of the Sea</i>	Chrisman	18	15
<i>Dobry</i>	Shannon	16	16
<i>Dark Frigate</i>	Hawes	12	17.5
<i>Waterless Mountain</i>	Armer	12	17.5
<i>Invincible Louisa</i>	Meigs	11	19
<i>The Story of Mankind</i>	Van Loon	10	20
<i>Trumpeter of Krakow</i>	Kelley	5	21

TABLE II
NUMBER OF CHILDREN READING AT LEAST ONE BOOK ACCORDING TO GRADES

Grade	Number	Read at least one	Read none	Per cent who read at least one
Eighth	168	127	41	75.6
Seventh	66	44	22	66.6
Sixth	258	165	75	69.5
Fifth	252	165	69	70.5
Fourth	204	99	105	48.5

have given little thought to the Newbery books. Some have read aloud the ones that appealed to them, and have recommended others to the children. Some feel that it is far better to recommend newer and more attractive books at this time. They say that we can hardly expect children of today to enjoy many of these books as they do not have the background that would be necessary in order to be able to appreciate the books. Teachers would have to build up this background before recommending the books. They do not really have time for this, as they must struggle to cover required work. They feel that the books are too difficult for most children.

There are some teachers (usually those who have taken special courses in library materials) who are more enthusiastic about the books and more anxious to find out how the children react to them.

Librarians say that no accurate estimate could be made for the reading of any certain group of books. Children read by "spurts." A book may be in constant demand for a year or two and there will then follow a period when the book is practically forgotten. It may lie upon the shelf idle for many weeks until, perhaps by chance, some reader will choose it and again recommend it to others. The book itself is no better and no worse than it has always been. One librarian said that the Newbery books seemed to be written from an adult point of view in language not easily understood by children. Another said that most of the books lacked that "spark of something" that can cause children to stick to a book from begin-

ning to end without losing interest and enthusiasm. In general, they feel that most of the books are "just not popular."

Library lendings. A detailed account of library lendings would merely substantiate the results of the children's questionnaires and librarians' opinions. For example, *The Story of Mankind* was on the shelves of a branch library for several years and was never taken out. It was finally transferred to another building where it was taken out eight times in four years. *The Trumpeter of Krakow* was taken out eleven times in five years. It is evident that they are not widely read. In libraries where it is possible to locate teachers' withdrawals, it is found that invariably a teacher's withdrawal of the book will be followed by a heavy demand by the children. This substantiates the belief that the building up of a background and the recommendation of the book is an important feature in arousing interest and enthusiasm in the book.

A disappointing discovery was made when the checking on library lendings started. Rea School had only seven of the books: *Story of Mankind*, *Tales from Silver Lands*, *Trumpeter of Krakow*, *Hitty*, *Caddie Woodlawn*, *Call It Courage*, and *The Matchlock Gun*. *Smoky* had been lost during the years and not replaced. Lange had six of the books: *Dark Frigate*, *Thimble Summer*, *Call It Courage*, *Tales from Silver Lands*, *Smoky, the Cowhorse*, and *Gay-Neck*. Davis Park had only three: *The Voyages of Dr. Doolittle*, *Smoky*, and *Trumpeter of Krakow*. McLean had all but the last four. Rankin, Laboratory, and Emeline Fairbanks had them all. Sandison

pupils had to depend on the public library. The results show up for the different books just as they do for *The Matchlock Gun*. Rea School library got this book early in the summer. It was used constantly because it was new and because it was simply written and not too long. It was introduced by a teacher in October. After that it was in constant use. The result was that forty-one children read the book. In Sandison, with no branch library, only one child read the book. In Davis Park four read it, and at Lange only one. In Rankin ten in the intermediate grades read it, and in Laboratory, twelve. They had access to the book but no mention was made of special introduction by a teacher. In the seventh grade, one pupil in McLean and thirteen in Rankin read the book. In the eighth grade, two in McLean and seven in Rankin read it. McLean library did not have the book while Rankin did. So it is evident that access to books and introduction by teacher are both important factors which contribute to their popularity.

Grade placement. Children's likes and dislikes and also their abilities make it hard to recommend any one book for a certain grade. Fourth grade children especially liked *Voyages of Dr. Doolittle*, *The Cat Who Went to Heaven*, and *The Matchlock Gun*. *Smoky* was most likely to be read in grades five and six. *Invincible Louisa*, *Trumpeter of Krakow*, and *Story of Mankind* seem too difficult for most children in the elementary grades.

Statements made by children indicate that some of the books must be read in the intermediate grades if they are ever to be enjoyed, and that others are more suited to the older children. Many of the seventh- and eighth-grade children stated that they had read the books in "grade school." Many said they read them when they were in the sixth grade. The ones who had waited until later to read *Dr. Doolittle* and *Thimble Summer* often labeled them as "baby books." It is probable, however, that some of these children would enjoy the books more now than they did at that time.

Indiana State Teachers College

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Many children do read the Newbery books. By the time they finish the eighth grade, in all probability, at least seventy-five per cent of them will have read some of the books. However, only a few of the books have really become popular. They are, in general, not widely read.

Most of the children who do read these books like them.

Children like humor, adventure, excitement, and action. They like fairy tales and mystery. Girls like stories about girls, and boys like stories about boys. They do not want stories that are too babyish, but do want to be able to understand what they read.

When it comes to grade placement, only an estimate can be made. Children's likes and dislikes and also their abilities vary too greatly. The books should be made available to them at an early age, but they should not be expected to read the ones that are too difficult for them.

Children are interested in the Newbery books to the degree that their teachers and librarians are interested. Some are very enthusiastic. Others lack interest. If teachers expect to arouse the enthusiasm of children, they themselves must be well enough informed to build up backgrounds that will enable the children to understand the books. They must be able to enjoy the books themselves, and must also be capable of reading aloud attractive and interesting passages. Books about situations and activities that are not familiar to the child need introducing. The librarian or teacher who is in any way responsible for guiding children's reading should be a keen judge of the children's interests. They should be sympathetic, understanding, friendly, and enthusiastic. Let teachers and librarians take an inventory of their own likes and dislikes.

The needs of children to be served must first receive consideration. The books available to children must be varied in content, form, and difficulty, so that they may open up broad fields of reading, and provide for individual

differences in background, interests, and abilities. If only a limited number of books can be bought for children, buy those that will serve the greatest number best. Certainly one would not buy for young children a complete set of the Newbery Prize books and place them on the shelf knowing that *The Story of Mankind*, *The Trumpeter of Krakow*, and several others might remain idle for a good part of the time. On the other hand, the books do vary in content, form, and difficulty. The results of this study show that they appeal to some children. Why not give the children a chance to choose by placing the books before them. Let them decide whether or not they care for them.

Children are not going to explain to grown-ups what they like or dislike. Often they don't know themselves. When they do, many of them, especially adolescent children, are not going to express their innermost feelings. They do their best to keep them hidden. They carefully shield their deepest thoughts and most cherished ideas from older people. For a few short years, when they are young, they are honest, sincere, and open minded. But very early they learn to say they like what grown-ups expect them to like. They want to win respect and favor.

The children who had read the Newbery books but had no comments to make were sincere. They really did not know what to say. Why should they try to make up something that would sound well? Perhaps they couldn't remember right at the time what the stories were about, for it is evident that only stories that make very distinct impressions on the mind are long remembered. Children's minds are filled with so many different things, and they read so much that they do not remember any certain book very long. When we consider home responsibilities, regular lessons, extra-curricular activities, radio programs, the movies, travel and sports, the amount that children do is appalling. When Johnny takes out five books each library day and returns

them at the end of one or two weeks, has he really read them? Is he a real reader or a picture reader? Could he tell you the titles and the authors of the books he has just returned? If called upon one month later to report on the books, would he do it? Just how long do children remember books, and what kind of books make the deepest impressions? These questions would make an interesting study for someone.

To deprive a child of the personal adjustment and the broad experience that comes from wide reading is to deny him something that is absolutely necessary if he is to step out into the world of tomorrow well prepared. Young people are going to need poise, and a keen sense of values. Experience through reading is bound to help; so give them books and plenty of them. Fill the bookshelves, and if funds are not too limited, it can do no harm to include a complete set of the Newbery Prize books. They do appeal to some children.

Forthcoming Events

The American Humane Education Society announces its new annual contest for the most outstanding contribution to humane education. This contest is open to all educators, and the Society will award each year a 14-karat gold key (to be known as the National Humane Key) which will be inscribed on one side with the name and date of the winner. In addition to the key, the winner is to receive two hundred dollars in war bonds or cash.

Entries may include projects on a humane theme, humane plays or stories, original methods of teaching humane education, or theses on humane education.

The closing date for this year's contest is April 30, 1944. All those wishing to enter the contest are urged to write at once to the National Humane Key Committee, 180 Longwood Avenue, Boston 15, Massachusetts, for entrance blanks and rules of the contest.

Counseling Youth for Today and Tomorrow

Marguerite W. Zapoleon

Mrs. Zapoleon is a specialist in the Occupational Information Guidance Service of the United States Office of Education. Although this address was delivered during a recent guidance conference at Indiana State Teachers College in the early spring, September seems the appropriate time for presenting it; since that is the month when schools are opening throughout the country and teachers, supervisors and administrators are planning their yearly programs. Mrs. Zapoleon has kept this general and theoretical so that it might furnish suggestions to any school set-up desiring a guidance program.

Dean Herman Schneider of the University of Cincinnati wrote a book not long before his death in which he stated the problem with which this paper is concerned. ". . . but an understandable evolution of secondary schools and books . . . they have been kept apart from the hurly-burly of life, where the talk is of battleships, air raids, dictatorships, and 'thisisms' and 'thatisms' . . . it penetrates into the minds of the students. Then some nice June day the commencement exercises end with the benediction only to find the morass outside the cloister walls. Orientation is a bewildering task. They see but they have no sense of direction."¹

It is realized that many schools and many educators have thought about this—about making the June problem easier. Young people are leaving our schools at all times of the year, but one recognizes this problem more in June because so many students leave school at that time.

¹Herman Schneider, *The Problem of Vocational Guidance* (New York: Frederick A. Stokes Company, 1938), pp. v-vi.

Although many have been concerned with this problem for a long time and many of the schools have been working on it, one knows that it has not been solved. Most of the correspondence received by the United States Office of Education would not be necessary if the schools were meeting that June problem. Why should a boy write in from Indiana, Ohio, or California and ask where he could get a certain type of training and whether or not he should take up that training? If somebody had counseled him earlier, he wouldn't think of writing all the way to Washington for help. Teachers and administrators are besieged with students coming to them with the question, "What shall I do?" What can one do to prepare the young people for that June period in their lives which some of them have learned to dread instead of looking forward to as a real commencement. Young people need a sense of security which will make them better able to go ahead and plan for themselves and think for themselves.

First is to have a plan for the immediate future and a sense of direction. If the boy or girl who is going to graduate knows what he or she will do in the future, it will give him a better feeling about getting his diploma.

Second is a confidence in oneself that one can meet ordinary problems as they arise. There is no better way of developing this confidence than aiding students in meeting each problem as it arises. They are then able to meet those problems which come to them after they leave school.

Third, that the students have confidence in their school. The school

and the community they come from, should have sources from which they can draw to help them in solving their problems.

The three elements in applying this sense of security can only be given through an individual counseling program in the school. Much can be done in giving part of it in different ways, but not until much work has been done can the goal be achieved. In order that a counselor might aid students in solving their problems, plans should be worked out so that students leaving school may know what is ahead of them. It gives the student a sense of direction. It gives him confidence when he knows to whom he can go and whom he can depend upon.

Today, almost every school is doing some individual counseling. Principals spend a great deal of time working out individual problems that arise each day. In some cases, they are relieved from other duties in order to handle such problems. More than a casual provision is necessary for the kinds of problems that are so big that students automatically go to the United States Office of Education with them. Particularly with young students, one must make them feel more welcome. Just an invitation usually is not enough, unless they have enough initiative to go anyway; and the ones who have enough initiative to go without invitation know enough to help solve their own problems. Services should be offered systematically to every student in school.

Mention should be made of the other functions of a complete guidance program. They are stated in various ways. The Occupational Information and Guidance Service of the United States Office of Education has suggested six services:

1. Knowledge of the individual or an individual inventory. That implies obtaining as much information about each student's life as it is possible to obtain.
2. Collection and dissemination of occupational information about the community.
3. Training opportunities. This may

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be tied in with occupational information.

4. Counseling. The bringing together of all information about the individual and about the community in a personal interview—attacking a particular problem of a particular child.
5. Placement.
6. Follow-up. In the follow-up it is necessary not only to find out what happened to the young people, but also to offer those students who seem unadjusted further counseling where it is needed.

All six of these factors are important in a counseling program. Because, like anything else, one has to work toward an ultimate goal. In some communities all of these functions are being carried on better than in other communities. It should be emphasized that the counseling function is the pivoting function without which the others would be crippled. A school with records can give much helpful information when called upon by some outside agency. In Georgia, one school had been keeping records over a period of two years on a certain class. When asked, "Have you used these records in individual interviews with the students?", the reply was, "No, we don't have them for that." There may be orientation classes and career classes but unless all of the material is related, the results will not be so effective. A good deal of time and effort may be spent on collecting records of students, but unless an attempt is made to use that information to avoid mistakes in the future that have been made in the past, it is wasted time and effort.

The core of the counseling program is missing unless it can be applied to the individual problems of the students which are discovered as a result of a personal interview. How can such a service be provided? The main objection is that there is no money for such a program. Some of the greatest failures have been well financed. Some of the best successes have been achieved where there is a great amount of interest and hardly any foundation. The best guidance programs which have been developed are

not necessarily placed where money is abundant, but where a little bit of a guidance program was undertaken and developed and then enlarged and expanded after it had shown what could be done with individual students. If a school has the kind of guidance program which does have individual concern, it is certain to win the support of the parents and children. A well-qualified teacher who can give just one period a day is something with which a school can start an individual counseling program.

Some schools take a cross section of students in carrying out their guidance programs. It functions as follows:

First, the counselor should not become identified in the student's mind as someone to whom he can go with the natural problems that arise in making decisions or plans.

Second, the counselor needs to maintain a certain kind of perspective if he comes in contact with a wide cross section of students. It is easier for the counselor in such a program to make evaluations of abilities, capacities, and interests than if he confines his services to a particular type of child—the one that is unadjusted.

Third, while problem cases are very spectacular and to which one can point with pride if he succeeds, success is less likely to be achieved with such cases, even though it is more important to prevent them or to uncover the problems in their incipient stage.

Fourth, unless routine counseling is done, some of the most serious problems with which teachers come in contact are those that do not appear to be problems on the surface, as the pupils manage to seem adjusted in ordinary group situations.

Five, if guidance is an essential problem in the school, then it should serve all students and not be confined to a particular group. If fifty students can be helped during the year, it is a good beginning.

Should the school council those students who are leaving? Again it should lean towards the "ounce of prevention" course. It seems that there

will be fewer problems if the beginning is made when the class enrolls instead of waiting until it is ready to graduate.

Another problem is, "Shall every teacher be a counselor, or is it best to select one or a few to handle the counseling program?" That program is best which draws every teacher in the school into it. It is as much to the teacher's advantage to participate in the guidance program as it is to the program itself. All the teachers should have an understanding of the educational, vocational, and guidance problems which are likely to arise. However, it is impractical in most school situations to expect every teacher to be an individual counselor, because the faculties in which every teacher is interested and is trained to do individual counseling are few and far between. More harm is done by having teachers who are not interested and who do not want to help than in having no guidance program at all.

It is better to have one teacher give four periods of counseling a day who is interested than to have four teachers devoting one period a day to counseling and have a performance rating in the group from poor to excellent. A program will function better in the hands of a relatively small group of people who are able to obtain the co-operation of the teachers and the individuals. The thing which matters most is that those who are selected are qualified to do their jobs.

Another thing which should be emphasized is the importance of the knowledge of the community. How many teachers who are handling homeroom guidance programs have ever been in an employment office and listened to the questions which their students are going to be asked when they apply for a job? How many have ever sat in a social agency or the office of a Red Cross social worker and have listened to the kind of interviewing that that person does? That is the kind of information which is needed in the guidance program. People are needed as counselors who

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Culture—During and After the War

Robert Reed

During the school year of 1942-1945, building convocations were held at Indiana State Teachers College for the purpose of discussing problems related to the war and peace. It was at one of the Science Hall meetings that Mr. Reed gave the following talk. Mr. Reed was a sophomore at the time.

War always has had a profound effect upon man's way of living. Culture is not exempted. In fact, it is probably the first and most permanently affected as a result of changes brought about by the war—along with the social and economic problems.

As the dictionary puts it, culture is the training or refining of the moral or intellectual nature. One might say, therefore, that Hitler has been contributing to the advancement of culture today in that he has been training the intellectual faculties of his slaves—for war and death and hate. If they can not be trained in this one line of thinking, they are eliminated from the cultural world. However, one word in the definition keeps Hitler and his kind from donating to the advancement of culture. That is the word "refinement." Teaching the youth of Germany or any other country to kill and desecrate is not refining the intellectual faculties.

Notice, also, that as Hitler overpowered one state after another in his glorious march to liberate the world, the people of outstanding intelligence who opposed his policies were shot or otherwise liquidated. In other words, the cream of the crop of intellectual people has been killed or chased out of the biggest part of Europe. This can not help having an important effect upon culture after the

war. If we expect to restore culture to Europe after the war, we have to have something to work on. Not only minds, but the more physical aspects of culture such as fine paintings, sculptures, architecture, and churches have been destroyed as they are in any war. Fresh minds may be educated, but these physical things are not so easily replaced.

Culture is also, to a certain extent, our way of thinking and living. This phase of culture has undergone great changes in Europe. Education, as Gregor Ziemer puts it, is for death. It will take years and perhaps death itself to erase the new way of thinking from Hitler's disciples. And as long as that way of thinking is present, it will be a definite hindrance to post-war culture. There is no room for culture in a mind filled with Facist ideas.

Hitler and Germany have been used thus far as examples. Maybe that is not altogether fair. Let us look at the United States then, a democracy. To a certain extent, culture has taken a back seat here, also. The future artists, and the word is used here in the broad sense, and brains of our country are being taken out of school and sent to face death and to train for death. War needs are given priority over cultural needs at all times, as they should be of course, but just the same it has its effect upon the advancement of culture or even the maintaining of it.

On the bright side there are the new scientific discoveries, which in many ways will broaden the cultural side of life after the war by making available so much new knowledge.

Religion has suffered as the result of almost every war since time began.

This war is not an exception. Religion, in one form or another, might be said to be the foundation of any culture. If this foundation is weakened, the whole structure of culture will be affected. Then, too, all of the young college-age boys and even older men who have spent months, maybe years, learning how to hate and to kill will have a hard time seeing the cultural side of life when they return from fighting. The fellow who has been fighting Japs in the Pacific is going to take a more realistic attitude toward life and will look with some skepticism upon those who try to impress him with the need for more culture in this world. All he wants is rest, a safe home, and a job, and it may take some time to get him interested in the finer things of life again.

The war is bringing about a change in our appreciation of the intellectual abilities or cultures of the other nations. One will have to accept the different forms of culture after this war, for he is going to be brought into infinitely closer contact with them. Above all, one can not form an opinion of other races by comparing their cultures with his own. One of the greatest mistakes that could be made after this war would be to try to force our culture or way of thinking on any of the rest of the world. After all, the Chinese were a cultured people before we even thought of being Americans. Since then, however, we have had a better chance to develop than they. We can't judge other cultures or ways of living by our own standards. Theirs will have to be understood first. Here is where education will play an important part.

After the war is over, Europe—in fact about one-half of the world—is going to be hungry, illfed and housed, and mentally sick. There will be the huge job of reconstructing whole countries. People's thought will be occupied either with the problem of filling their stomachs and getting decent roofs over the heads, or with the social and economic problems that have to be faced in a postwar reconstruction era. Are we going to go up

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to a starving Asiatic or European and say, "Buddy, we're here to refine your intellectual faculties. How about it?" He would laugh in our faces, and one couldn't blame him. He is more interested in feeding his family than he is in learning to play a violin.

We are going to have to wait until the world has recovered somewhat from this conflict before we can look toward an advancement of culture. Even then it is going to be difficult. As said before, culture can not be forced upon people. It has to be made available and then assimilated by the individual. Education is probably one of the best methods, but there again one meets many problems. Tools will have to be made available with which man can fashion a new or better culture for himself, and at first that problem is going to take a back seat to some of the more urgent needs of civilization after the war. Not that the problem of re-establishing or improving the cultural level after the war isn't vital, it is; but there are other problems that are going to take priority.

Counseling Youth . . .

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are so interested in their community that they will get this information by themselves. Counseling and teaching are quite similar in many ways. They both require an interest in people and patience.

An outstanding example of what can be done is shown by an English teacher who taught in a school having an enrollment of three hundred students. The community had no guidance work of any kind. This teacher took some courses in summer school and became interested in it as she saw it related to her students. She saw the relationship on the one hand and the guidance training that was being offered in her school on the other hand. She took one of her English classes and had them get information of an occupational nature. She worked out appointments with the different businessmen in the community, and out of

all the talks she made a joint program. She had students have interviews with the different businessmen and then report the interviews to the class orally. One can see that she was not neglecting her English but was also getting occupational information. English for the first time in that course had been related to something the students could understand regarding their community. A complete occupational file was kept in the office of the principal and it listed every occupation and all the businessmen in the community.

Parents came to the school and asked for information, and students

asked for specialized placement information. She organized an evening group for parents. She has been released now for half-time counseling work and interviews each person in the high school once a year. There develops a good spirit among students where such programs are carried on.

There is no better way to emphasize the importance of the individual than to provide for every young person who comes into the school a systematic counseling service which will help him to meet his daily problems and which will give him confidence to face the problems of the future.

Around the Reading Table

Cushman, Robert E., *Safeguarding Our Civil Liberties*. Public Affairs Committee, Inc., New York, 1945. 52 pp.

The civil liberties that are threatened today are not the same ones that were endangered during the first World War, according to Dr. Cushman, Professor of Government at Cornell University, in a new edition of the Public Affairs Pamphlet *Safeguarding Our Civil Liberties*. The special military areas established by the Army and the enforced evacuation of thousands of American citizens from these sections to federal relocation centers cause the author to believe that we appear, during the present war, to have abandoned the rule that martial law can not validly be in force side by side with civilian law. "We should watch with jealous suspicion and concern," he says, "this tendency to supplant civil authority by martial law. Serious danger lies in this development."

In the field of free speech Dr. Cushman finds no serious problems at present, although nearly 5,000 persons were prosecuted for unlawful speeches, publications, or meetings during the last war.

And the brutal treatment of aliens by federal officials, which was a national scandal during the last war, has not been repeated. "On the con-

trary," declares Dr. Cushman, "extraordinary pains are being taken by the government to extend to aliens and enemy aliens fair and reasonable treatment."

The pamphlet utters another warning, which comes, unfortunately, too late for the citizens of Detroit, Los Angeles, and Beaumont. Dr. Cushman cautions against "an intollerant public opinion which clamors for the suppression of minority rights." We have succumbed again to what he calls a "diseased" public opinion which whips whole communities into emotional frenzies and causes them to lose their capacity for thoughtful judgment.

Yet the domestic picture has another bright spot. According to the pamphlet, the recent actions of the Supreme Court in reversing itself in two cases involving the Jehovah's Witnesses and in refusing to cancel the naturalization of the Communist, William Schneiderman, are steps that enlarge and strengthen the safeguards which protect our liberties.

Safeguarding Our Civil Liberties is Pamphlet No. 43 in the series of popular, factual, ten-cent pamphlets issued by the Public Affairs Committee, Inc., nonprofit, educational organization at 50 Rockefeller Plaza, New York. Dr. Cushman is also author of another Public Affairs Pamphlet, *What's Happening to Our Constitution?*

Crabb, Alfred Leland, *Supper at the Maxwell House*. The Bobbs-Merrill Company, 1943.

Alfred Leland Crabb, in *Supper at the Maxwell House*, continues the story of Nashville and its people which he began in *Dinner at Belmont*. Many of the characters are to be found in both books. While *Dinner at Belmont* is a novel of captured Nashville during the war between the States, in his new book, Mr. Crabb pictures for us recaptured Nashville and its courageous struggle to reconstruct the society, culture, and estates of its past.

Although deprived of the elegance and ease of their old life, these people turn to the soil determined to meet the mortgages which had been placed on their estates before the war, but which now were being foreclosed quite rapidly by profiteers who invaded this border city at the close of hostilities.

The Maxwell House was almost finished before the war began, but it was turned into a prison and not completed until four years after the war. The guest list for the first supper served there included both the survivors of the old families and the worthier of the newcomers. The beautiful surroundings, tempting foods, and soft music do much to heal the breach of civil conflict.

The drama is centered in young Weaver Cole and his mother and their determination to rebuy their lost home of Kingsley. Young Weaver vowed never to return to his former home until he could return as its owner. He kept his vow even though he had in the meantime fallen in love with Merrié Lawrence, daughter of the rich Yankee who had purchased Kingsley.

Marian Kittle
Indiana State Teachers College

Brown, Zaidee, *The Library Key*. The H. W. Wilson Company, 1943.

In these busy days, when time and energy are so precious, readers and students who know how to use library aids are the lucky ones. A clear

introduction to library use is Zaidee Brown's *The Library Key*, 5th edition. This may be used as a textbook in college or high schools, or as a guide for the individual reader. Miss Brown, formerly librarian at the New Jersey State Teachers College at Montclair, says that, in her experience, even graduate students find some parts of it useful. Review questions and practice exercises save the time of the teacher who uses it as a textbook.

Topics treated include the arrangement of libraries, various reference books, magazine indexes, bibliographies, a method of compiling bibliographies, and the taking of notes.

A new feature of this edition is an appendix, a guide to printed aids, entitled, "Short Cuts to Information: Time Savers for Teachers, Librarians, and All Who Must Find the Answers." This tells how to find books, pamphlets, and magazine articles on any topic by using lists available in most libraries. It also indicates the best sources for information on various topics, such as family life, mental hygiene, recreation, and the war. Addresses and prices are given, and many of the publications noted are inexpensive. Teachers and school administrators will find here a condensed guide to the literature of education, including lists of aids for various groups of teachers, such as those in elementary schools, in classes for adults, and those teaching high-school subjects. A section on audio-visual aids includes pictures, slides, phonograph records, the radio, and moving pictures.

This appendix has been reprinted as a separate pamphlet, 32 pages in length (25 cents, additional copies in the same order, 10 cents). This lower quantity price may encourage co-operative buying by groups. No guide of just this sort has been available, heretofore, to the general reader and to the teacher.

Rossell, Beatrice Sawyer, *Public Libraries in the Life of the Nation*. American Library Association, Chicago, 1945. 105 pp.

This book is an answer to the long-felt need for a simple statement of American librarianship that could be used to attract promising young men and women into the ranks of the profession. It begins with the axiom that widely-used libraries are a basic necessity for functioning democracy, and that good libraries can not exist without good librarians and imaginative librarianship. It shows with proper enthusiasm just what are the tangible rewards that librarianship offers to young people who have ambition for public service—the kind of intelligent public service the world needs today.

Mrs. Rossell's book is part of a conscious effort being made by the library profession to recruit the right kind of young people. Addressed to the college student age level—and to the high-school senior—it pictures the challenge that library service holds for people who are seeking a career that will make full use of their intellectual capacities and their desire to contribute to the advancement of human society.

The material is presented in two sections. The first describes outstanding examples of public library service today; the second indicates the kind of work that prospective librarians might expect to do in serving or directing various types of libraries. There are nine chapters: Books in Human Life, In the Americas Today, A Large City Library in Action, Reaching a Rural Community, A Small Town Dynamo, With Boys and Girls in School, Where Specialists Are Needed, How Public Library Service is Administered, and The Outlook for the Future.

In the chapter, "The Outlook for the Future," the author has attempted "to relate social conditions and library service in the United States today," and has indicated "some of the challenges offered your ingenuity and abilities, if you decide to become a librarian."

The author was for many years editor of the *A. L. A. Bulletin*, and has been an intimate participant in American library activities.

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